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ABSTRACT

An approach to integrating classroom instruction of subject area content and a second language is outlined. In the integrated classroom, teams of language and content specialists bring their expertise to course planning, teaching, and assessment, and work together in the same classroom for each session. The approach was constructed by drawing on theory concerning the integration of content and language instruction and on a method for intensive interdisciplinary collaboration. This method links text structure to knowledge structure (schema) to help learners organize, and therefore understand and apply, new information. Application of this approach is illustrated in a personal experience at Miyazaki International College (Japan), an institution dedicated to producing liberally educated students who are functionally literate in both English and Japanese. The instructional unit described is part of an introductory course in political science. Contains 52 references. (MSE)

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TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

# Integrating Language and Content Instruction: A Framework to Guide Cross-disciplinary Team Teaching

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**Abstract**

The focus of this paper is on how systematic organization of the teaching of content and language can further the development of an integrated classroom. The "integrated classroom" is a unique model of language and content integration in which teams of language and content specialists bring their expertise to course planning, teaching and assessment and, in which both instructors work together in the same classroom for each session. With this model, intensive collaboration by content-language teaching teams is required to meet the goal of language and content studies integration. This study attempts to link some of the theoretical supports for content and language integration with a framework (the knowledge framework) designed to help teachers better achieve integration. The practical application of the framework in a fully integrated team-teaching situation will be drawn from the author's experience in one course.

# Integrating Language and Content Instruction: A Framework to Guide Cross-disciplinary Team Teaching

**Timothy Stewart**

As we approach the millenium a wave of change is surging through higher education. With domestic pools of students in decline, universities in industrialized countries are beginning the process of redefining their missions, restructuring and looking for ways to attract more students. In Japan recently, the Ministry of Education (*Monbusho*) has begun to stress the need for reform in Japanese higher education in reaction to such calls from CEOs of major domestic conglomerates. The latest Ministry of Education white paper on national education policies states that Japanese universities must reform in order better to meet the needs of society (*Daily Yomiuri*, 1996). Part of the concern is that when it comes to promoting international perspectives, in a nation seemingly obsessed with "internationalization" (*kokusaika*), universities in Japan lag far behind those in all other advanced countries (Otsubo, 1995).

Miyazaki International College (MIC) was established to serve as one possible model for change in the Japanese higher education system. It is the first university of its kind to have received accreditation from the Japanese Ministry of Education. MIC is a unique institution in many ways. First, the mission of the college is to produce students functionally literate in both English and Japanese language and culture with a solid liberal arts education based on a curriculum in comparative culture. Second, MIC has by far the greatest concentration of English-speaking faculty at any university in Japan. All of the faculty speak English and 80% are non-Japanese compared with less than 2% in the entire system. Third, there is a concerted effort to keep class size small in order to facilitate the use of active and cooperative learning techniques (Bonwell & Eison, 1991; Johnson, Johnson & Smith, 1991). Employing these techniques requires that students actually attend classes regularly and are active participants in them; rare in Japan. Finally, and most importantly for this paper, faculty at MIC are striving to integrate discipline-specific course content with foreign language instruction. The main vehicles for this are the first and second-year integrated courses which are planned and taught by teams composed of content and language faculty. This is a unique program of integration which aims at having both language and content specialists bring their expertise to course planning, teaching and assessment as well as, having both instructors work together in the same classroom for each session. Thus MIC, through an integrated classroom, is attempting methodically to integrate language and content learning with the development of thinking skills.

Integrated and collaborative language and content teaching (Benesch, 1988; Snow, Met & Genesee 1989; Mohan, 1991; Nunan, 1992; Snow & Richard-Amato, 1992; Tang, 1994) are models which recent studies (Kaufman, 1996; Short, 1994) indicate have never before been fully implemented on a program or institution wide level. As such, their implementation leaves many questions in need of consideration. The MIC curriculum requires intensive collaboration by content-language teaching teams to meet the goal of language and content studies integration. In fact, the team-teaching approach being used at MIC represents a new model of language and content integration. It is different from those currently described in the literature (Short, 1991; Brinton, Snow & Wesche, 1989). In such an experiment, it is natural for faculty to be unsure as to why and how language and content instruction should be integrated. In this paper, I link some of the theoretical

supports for content and language integration with a framework designed to help teachers better achieve integration. The practical application of the framework in a fully integrated team-teaching situation will be drawn from my experience in one MIC course. The focus here is on how the teaching of content and language can be organized systematically in an integrated classroom. As Swain points out, "*if* second language learning is more successful when learned in meaningful contexts, [...] we need to be doing a lot more *fundamental planning* about *how* to integrate language and content teaching" (1996, p. 544).

## Theoretical Basis For Integrating Content and Language Teaching

Where in the literature do we find a theoretical foundation to support Integrated Language and Content instruction (ILC)? Let us review briefly three theories of language acquisition suggested by Mohan (1991) which may provide some theoretical support for ILC: 1. the Monitor Model, 2. the Language Proficiency Model, and 3. Language Socialization.

### 1. Monitor Model

The concern of Krashen's Monitor Model is simply that of linguistic competence. The central feature of Krashen's hypothesis is whether or not "input" or the "message" (content) is comprehensible to the receiver. This to Krashen is the essential ingredient in language acquisition. He claims that language learners learn new structures in small increments (from their current level of competence labelled i, to their "next stage" labelled 1, through the aid of comprehensible input, i + 1). New or unknown input is comprehended by relying on "context" (Krashen, 1985, 1988).

This input hypothesis (i + 1) is quite relevant for ILC since it is crucial that abstract academic concepts are made comprehensible for students. However, Krashen's lack of attention to the central concept of context is disappointing. He merely states that acquirers gain proficiency "a little beyond" their current level of competence with the aid of the extra-linguistic context. And while the usefulness of visual aids such as pictures and realia is acknowledged, his discussion of background information which can aid comprehension is sketchy. In other words, there is little attempt to explain context in terms of content schemata - the learner's personal knowledge of the world, (Carrell & Eisterhold, 1988; Mohan & Smith, 1992). Schema theory contends that comprehension involves interaction between the learner's background knowledge and the written or spoken text. Thus, learners interpret information by mapping it against some existing internal schema. The more limited world knowledge a learner has, the fewer schemata the learner will have developed. Teachers must be continually aware of this and introduce new material by referring to existing schemata and building new ones off of them (Singer & Donlan, 1989, p. 185). The input hypothesis pays no real attention to this crucial issue of how information is processed.

Krashen is a strong supporter of content-based language instruction. He believes that "comprehensible subject-matter teaching is language teaching". His view is that in order to attain skills language students should spend time reading, writing, speaking and listening for meaning, rather than doing grammar and speaking drills (Krashen, 1985).

In the final analysis, however, it is clear that the Monitor Model is too narrow for teachers engaged in ILC. This model has no references to integration, content learning or the development of thinking skills. Further, it seems safe to say that

subject-area teachers would not agree with Krashen that "content" is merely the "message" of any linguistic input (Krashen, 1985, p. 2). Those involved in teaching which integrates language learning, subject-matter learning and the development of thinking skills, have a broader concern than isolating linguistic competence at points along a continuum of acquisition. Cummins's model provides stronger theoretical support for ILC.

**2. Language Proficiency Model**

The Language Proficiency Model of Cummins (1984) describes two important concepts, basic interpersonal communicative skills (BICS) and cognitive/academic language proficiency (CALP) (Cummins, 1979, 1980). His distinction between two different bases for language proficiency, social communicative proficiency and academic communicative proficiency, is an important one for ILC. Social communicative proficiency involves being able to effectively interact socially and affectively in face-to-face situations. BICS are seen as being cognitively undemanding. This kind of communication is embedded in a context so that the language used is rich in cues such as intonation, gesture, and reference to present physical objects and events. These cues all aid in comprehension.

Proficiency in BICS does not necessarily lead to academic success, according to Cummins. He argues that we may have underestimated the amount of time and kinds of support second language learners need to be successful in school. In a survey of over 1,200 immigrant students in Canada, he found it took language students approximately 2 years to become conversationally fluent, whereas 5 to 7 years were required before they could approach grade norms for verbal academic skills (Cummins, 1984, pp.133-34). Collier (1987, 1989) later confirmed these findings. Her research determined that depending on the age when non-native speakers begin a program, it can take from 4 to 10 years' time for immigrant students in the U.S. to begin approaching academic achievement levels of native speakers.

Academic language is difficult to understand because it tends to be context-reduced, impersonal, formal, abstract and related to cognition and concepts. It relies not so much on context but on linguistic cues to convey meaning.

Cummins believes that his framework of context-embedded/context-reduced and cognitively-undemanding/cognitively-demanding language characterizes some of the relationships between language proficiency and academic achievement. He is concerned that most language teaching has focused on the development of surface-level functional or communicative proficiency, while neglecting deeper cognitive functions of language. From his analysis of research on bilingual education, Cummins suggests that L1 (first language) and L2 (second language) academic proficiencies are interdependent. Although languages are separate at the surface-level of function and communication, "there is an underlying cognitive/academic proficiency that is common across languages" (Cummins, 1984, p. 143). It follows then that education in L1 provides the learner with specific subject-matter information which can be transferred to L2 learning and, thus, makes learning in a second language easier.

This hypothesis is not without its critics. Cummins has been challenged on his concept of there being a universal concept of literacy, or common underlying proficiency. Many view literacy as being specific to particular cultures and communities (Martin-Jones & Romaine, 1986). Even given the criticisms, however, the Language Proficiency Model clearly has a more direct application to ILC than the Monitor Model. Rather than seeing all (comprehensible) communication as being equal, Cummins observes a distinct difference in the discourses of academic subjects

from those of everyday communication, and points to the degree of contextualization as being at the root of this difference.

The two continuums of context-embedded/context-reduced and cognitively-demanding/cognitively-undemanding language can help educators involved in ILC teaching to understand some of the difficulties their students face. It can also provide direction to teachers in materials and lesson design. Furthermore, the concept of CALP indicates that minority language students need time to begin mastering academic language. However, it is clear that second language learners cannot wait for 5 to 10 years before being allowed to enter academic courses. This would seem to further the need for ILC instruction. Cummins's model outlines some of the difficulties faced by language minority students in acquiring language for academic study. The following is a perspective which deals with how people are socialized and what role language plays.

**3. Language Socialization**

The language socialization perspective examines how and why humans learn and use language. It is a set of related ideas shared to some degree among scholars in sociology, anthropology, sociolinguistics, linguistics and psychology. Language socialization is an interpretive approach which seeks to understand the process through which individuals become competent members of society and what role language plays in the process (Schieffelin & Ochs, 1986a, 1986b). This school of thought examines the process of socialization from two viewpoints, socialization through language and socialization in the use of language. Language is for communication and language learning is interwoven with learning content and culture. Language socialization looks at both sociocultural structures and processes (situation), and language. Or, drawing from systemic linguistics, learning as a linguistic process (Halliday & Hasan, 1985).

Systemic linguists and language socialization theorists believe that language should not be seen in isolation from its social context (Halliday, 1978; Shieffelin & Ochs, 1986b). Systemic linguistics is based on a functional/cognitive model of language and systematically describes the relation between a discourse (or text, or actual language use) and the situation in which it occurs. The concept of register is central to this endeavor. A register is the variety of language used in a particular type of situation (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, pp. 21-26; Morley, 1985, pp. 4-5). Its function is to mediate the social system of a culture and the semantic system of a language.

There are two basic approaches to studying this relationship. The text-based approach attempts to infer situations through the examination of texts. The other approach found in systemic linguistics is situation-based. It examines situation first and then refers to text. In this research, the situation or activity facilitates the learning of language.

Bruner (1983) has pointed out that humans are social animals and their desire to perform activities or tasks motivates them to learn the cultural and linguistic aspects of each of these. Malinowski (1935/1966) believes that:

> Whether engaged in a technical manipulation, pursuing some sporting activity, or conducting a scientific experiment in a laboratory or assisting each other by word and deed in a simple manual task - words which cross from one actor to another do not serve primarily to communicate thought: they connect work and correlate manual and bodily movements. Words are part of action and they are equivalents to actions. (p. 9)

Thus, social situations and the activities/tasks and language related to each are the core of the language socialization theory. The view that tasks and activities have inherent linguistic traits is an important one for ILC. It means that tasks and

activities properly designed for the ILC classroom can be used to develop content-area learning, language learning and thinking skills simultaneously.

Even after identifying some of the theory upon which ILC is based, the familiar problem for classroom teachers remains. How can we translate these various abstract theories into practical and effective methods for classroom instruction? And more to the point for this paper, how can language-content teaching teams working in a dynamic, fully integrated classroom organize course content and instruction in a manner that allows the effective development of language learning, content learning and the development of thinking skills?

Bernard Mohan, has used concepts from language socialization to create an approach to systematically link language learning, content learning and the development of thinking that he calls the "Knowledge Framework".

## A Tool for the Integration of Language and Content Instruction

In the **Knowledge Framework** (KF) (see Table 1 below) (Mohan, 1986), language is defined more broadly than the rules of sentence grammar to include the organization of discourse. Content is seen as being not only the message of a sentence, but also as the organization of information within disciplines (Mohan, 1991). With his view of learning as a linguistic process, Mohan, like Halliday, is seeking the development of a linguistic theory of learning (Halliday & Hasan, 1985; Mohan, 1989). The KF is an attempt to reveal the relationship between the linguistic category of text structures and knowledge structures (schemata) (Mohan, 1989, 1991).

**Knowledge Structures**

| Theoretical Knowledge | | |
|---|---|---|
| **Classification** | **Principles** | **Evaluation** |
| classifying<br>categorizing<br>defining | explaining<br>predicting<br>generalizations<br>interpreting data and drawing conclusions<br>hypothesizing | evaluating<br>judging<br>criticizing<br>justifying<br>preference and personal opinions<br>recommending |
| observing<br>describing<br>naming<br>comparing<br>contrasting<br>spatial order | time relations<br>sequencing spatially<br>steps in process<br>narration<br>cycles | forming personal opinions<br>making decisions |
| **Description** | **Sequence** | **Choice (decision making)** |
| Practical Knowledge | | |

**Table 1: Adapted from: Early, 1990, p. 83.**

Knowledge structures or schemas, are flexible and dynamic patterns of information organization. They help learners organize knowledge so as to understand, remember and apply new information (Abelson & Black, 1986; Mohan, 1991).

The framework is divided into two main sections: practical knowledge (or action situations), consisting of knowledge structures of description, sequence and choice (more recently called "decision making"), and theoretical knowledge (background knowledge), including knowledge structures of classification, principles and evaluation (Mohan, 1986, pp. 40-49, 53-96). These knowledge structures are thinking skills which are common across languages (Tang, 1992; Werner & Schoepfle, 1987). They are also common across content areas and visible when translated into rhetorical patterns in oral discourse and written text.

Thus, Mohan believes that each situation and most subject areas include, though are not limited to, six major structures of knowledge. Knowledge structures in the KF are based on semantic rather than on sequential patterns of discourse. They "are abstract categories of the field of situation typically realized in discourse by logical meanings of the semantic system" (Mohan, 1989, pp. 103-104). In this way the KF is related to the systemic categories of situation and discourse (Halliday, 1978, pp. 128-151). Language is understood through its context. The contextual view of language relies on activities as contexts for discourse. The KF proposes that a typical situation contains an action situation and background knowledge (Mohan, 1986, pp. 42-3, 45-6). It is not just a rehash of the topic or theme-based approach. Mohan claims that: " 'Activity' is a more precise concept than 'topic'. A topic is anything that can be talked about; an activity is a combination of action and theoretical understanding" (Mohan, 1986, p. 42). The KF is an attempt to provide a general model for the body of knowledge in any given activity and their relation to discourse. The division of the framework between practical knowledge on the top and theoretical knowledge on the bottom exists because learning an activity involves learning both theory and practice.

**Examples of Key Visuals Related to Knowledge Structures**

| Theoretical Knowledge | | |
|---|---|---|
| **Classification** | **Principles** | **Evaluation** |
| web<br>tree<br>table<br>graph<br>database | line graph<br>tables<br>venn diagram<br>cycles | table<br>grid<br>rating chart |
| diagram<br>map<br>picture/slide<br>plans/drawings<br>table | action strip<br>timeline<br>flow chart<br>cycle | flow chart<br><br>decision tree |
| **Description** | **Sequence** | **Choice (decision making)** |
| Practical Knowledge | | |

**Table 2: Adapted from: Early, 1990, p. 84.**

Knowledge structures are visual (expressed in graphic form) as well as textual. As outlined in Table 2, each type of knowledge structure can be expressed by certain forms of key visuals. Key visuals are used as representations of meaning and to help learners communicate about meaning because the structure of knowledge is abstract (Early, 1990). In other words, as visuals transform text into forms which represent

rhetorical structures graphically, they serve as schema by which learners can deal with abstractions more readily. The advantage of using key visuals when teaching academic content and language is that they have either no or lowered linguistic demands and can assist the learner in understanding content. With language demands lowered, learners can focus on key concepts, connections among concepts, the structure of the information being presented and the language that goes with that structure.

The aim of the KF is to develop the cognitive language of students so that they can use English for learning across the curriculum. It is not simply the learning of an activity or an opportunity for communicative practice (Early, Thew & Wakefield, 1987, p. 7; Mohan, 1986, p. 43). In other words, once students learn the language of description and classification, for example, they will be able to transfer this knowledge to use it in all of their courses. Simply put, the KF provides students with the structure they need to connect content with language across the curriculum. Thus, the KF looks beyond language learning to education in general. It is an organizing framework for teaching language, content and cognitive skills across the curriculum. Therefore, it is a useful tool for all teachers and in particular teams of content-language specialists involved with ILC looking for a common instructional model upon which to integrate their teaching.

## The Knowledge Framework in Use

Before presenting an outline of how I used the KF in a course at MIC, I would like to direct readers to some sources on the general application of the framework over the past ten years. I have known many teachers who have expressed an interest in the KF, but have also admitted their confusion about how to apply it in their courses. Others have found the same to be true (Goldstein and Lui, 1994; Tang, 1996). In response to this, here is a summary of some references teachers may wish to consult before attempting to use the knowledge framework in their teaching: (How have classroom teachers applied the KF?)

In the Vancouver School Board Language and Content Program (Early, Mohan & Hooper, 1989), teams of content and language teachers were formed in eight elementary and four secondary schools in an attempt explicitly to teach language needed to understand knowledge structures. Early, Hooper and Mohan (1989) illustrate how the knowledge framework was used to get young children producing expository texts rather than the highly favoured narrative writing. Later, Early (1990) expanded upon this research by outlining more specifically how beginning ESL students can produce expository texts by using the knowledge framework linked with a variation of the Language Experience Approach.

Tang (1991, 1992) has done a great deal of work in the area of the role and value of using graphic representations of knowledge structures in the multicultural classroom. Early and Tang (1991), explain some of the theoretical basis underlying the value of key visuals. They also offer guidelines for the construction of visuals and suggest uses of visuals in teaching.

An interesting use of the knowledge framework to aid students with vocabulary development through the knowledge structure of classification was outlined by Dunbar (1992a). Dunbar (1992b) has also illustrated how language and content learning can be integrated through summary writing with the aid of the knowledge framework and key visuals.

Finally, there are two recently completed studies (Goldstein & Liu, 1994; Tang, 1994) and one study in progress (Tang, 1996) closely related to the topic of this article.

These papers examine how content and language teachers in Canada and Hong Kong have used the KF to promote teacher collaboration in integrating language and content.

## Using the Knowledge Framework to Organize and Teach Course Content in the Fully Integrated Classroom

In an introduction to Political Science course offered to students in their second term of study at MIC, the content professor and I used the knowledge framework to integrate language and content instruction for the second half of the course which included the central unit. This unit, a comparison of the American Presidential System and the British Parliamentary System, was introduced in the seventh week of a fifteen-week course. The class met three times per week and it took us five weeks to complete the unit. The two preceding three-week units were: an introductory unit of basic political concepts, including an examination of why the study of politics is important, and a unit outlining the principles of constitutional democracy.

I had introduced the knowledge framework to my teaching partner when we began our initial planning for the course. Later, as we began teaching, we felt that we wanted to combine our teaching of content and language more closely. So after discussing the framework again, we agreed to use it as a tool to organize the presentation of this unit.

The textbook for this course was *Understanding Politics: Ideas, Institutions and Issues*, (1993) Third Edition by Thomas M. Magstadt and Peter M. Schotten. The principal material for the third unit of our course was fifteen selected pages in chapter six ("Forms of Democracy: The United States and Great Britain", pages 116-143). This chapter was supplemented with teacher-generated materials such as, a summary of Articles 1, 2 and 3 of the U. S. constitution, explanations of the processes by which bills become law in the American and British systems, and a variety of key visuals, among others.

As was stated above, the goal in planning this unit with the KF was to integrate our language and content instruction as closely as possible. To do this we first read through the basic material for the unit, while considering where sections should be placed according to the knowledge structures of the framework. Then, each of us plotted the material in the framework, and later, we discussed this in order to create an overall integrated unit plan (Table 3).

In normal circumstances it is not overly time consuming to plan units with the KF. Instructors need to review material with an eye for the rhetorical structure of the text and then, place it into the appropriate section of the KF. To do this effectively, course units must be planned reasonably well in advance. All of the units for our introductory course in Political Science were agreed upon one month before the course began. Later, after agreement was reached on the basic unit plan, we outlined our specific content and language learning goals for each day. Normally, these lesson plans were completed a day or two before they were to be taught . Then, we created key visuals and active and cooperative learning activities around these goals. The 'days' noted in Table 3 were added after completion of the course for this publication. Since both instructors were in agreement on the importance of depth over breadth of content information for skill and proficiency development, our timelines for each unit were very loose; covering a predetermined amount of content material was not a main goal of the course. In short, the ability of the class to

assimilate language and content information dictated the pacing of the course as well as, the kinds of activities we designed for the class.

Our principle aim in designing course materials was to contextualize the key concepts through them. To help achieve this we used as many of the same, or similar, visual representations of the content as possible, as well as the necessary language related to each. We also worked collaboratively to teach through cooperative and active learning activities. All of this was done in a deliberate attempt to build content knowledge and linguistic competence simultaneously. Language and content learning was also recycled regularly and used as scaffolding (schemata) for the introduction of new concepts as we proceeded through the unit and the course. By creating and examining our activities through the KF, we found it easier to isolate and present content and language points for each.

To help readers better understand how the KF was used to teach this unit in an integrated way, let me outline some specific examples in detail. As is evident in Table 3, the majority of this unit focused on the knowledge structures and language of classification and description. This column in the framework deals with describing what something is. Since the students had little knowledge about these two government systems, a great deal of time had to be spent on outlining them. By working with this content in depth, in addition to related material learned in the first 2 units, the students were able to develop a good working knowledge of the structure of these kinds of thinking skills and the language related to them.

**Unit Plan**

| Classification | | Principles | | Evaluation | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Days: 2, 3, 6, 10, 11, 12 | | Days: 8, 9 | | Days: 14 | |
| CONTENT | LANGUAGE | CONTENT | LANGUAGE | CONTENT | LANGUAGE |
| • rejection of U.K. system by U.S. founders<br>• branches/ functions of U.S., U.K. governments | • species nouns<br>• possessives<br>• relative clauses | • checks and balances in U.S. system<br>• how bills move through U.S. congress | • cause, contrast, condition<br>• logical connectors | • review<br>• the two systems evaluated | • describing emotions: like /dislike, satisfactory/ unsatisfactory |
| Days: 1 - 7, 10 | 11, 12, 13 | Days: 8, 12 | | Days: 14 | |
| CONTENT | LANGUAGE | CONTENT | LANGUAGE | CONTENT | LANGUAGE |
| • U.S. rejection of parl. system, reasons and constitutional improvements<br>• articles 1, 2 and 3 of U.S. constitution<br>• checks and balances in U.S. system<br>• U.S., U.K. systems by branch | • stative verbs<br>• adverbs of comparison<br>• compare and contrast | • bill moving through U.S. Congress<br>• bill moving through the U.K. parliament | • logical/ chronological connectors | • review<br>• choosing system most preferred & state reasons | • modals<br>• preferences<br>• verbs of volition |
| Description | | Sequence | | Choice | |

**Table 3**

To activate their related background knowledge, the students reviewed quickly the Japanese government branches. They also read some of the chapter in the text on days 2 and 3. Once the students were familiar with the U.S. system in a general way, we began to work on specifics. Days 5 and 6 of the unit, as outlined in Table 4, focused on the U.S. constitution and branches of government.

**Lesson Plans**

| What is it? | How does it work? | How can I apply it? |
|---|---|---|
| **Classification** | **Principles** | **Evaluation** |
| **Topic:** U.S. constitution & Branches of government (days: 5, 6)<br>THINKING PROCESSES:<br>• classifying, understanding<br><br>LANGUAGE FOCUS:<br>• verbs of class membership (be), verbs of possession (have) | **Topic:** Simulation - Bill moving through US system (day: 9)<br>THINKING PROCESSES:<br>• rules, strategies, results, means ends<br>LANGUAGE FOCUS:<br>• prediction (should, ought to, therefore...)<br>• condition and contrast (if, then, in that case, otherwise) | **Topic:** Evaluation of U.S. and U.K. systems (day: 14)<br><br>THINKING PROCESSES:<br>• ranking, evaluating<br><br>LANGUAGE FOCUS:<br>• justifying opinions, stating reasons, standards (good/bad) |
| **Topic:** U.S. constitution & Branches of government (days: 5, 6)<br>THINKING PROCESSES:<br>• describing, naming<br><br>LANGUAGE FOCUS:<br>• NP+BE+NP, be verb | **Topic:** The Congressional Process (day: 8)<br><br>THINKING PROCESSES:<br>• following a process<br><br>LANGUAGE FOCUS:<br>• chronological connectors, prepositions | **Topic:** Evaluation of U.S. and U.K. systems (day: 14)<br><br>THINKING PROCESSES:<br>• making decisions, personal opinion<br>LANGUAGE FOCUS:<br>• agreement, disagreement, preferences |
| **Description** | **Sequence** | **Choice** |
| **Activities:**<br>1a. filling in of key visuals [visual 1], question/answer, plus reading related information from summary of Articles 1, 2, 3 of US constitution<br>b. information gap<br>c. mini-lecture, note taking<br>2. card game: place info. on the visual orally from memory | **Activities:**<br>1a. read, listen, repeat [visual 2]<br>b. game: complete the process graphic<br>2. test: complete the visual and write process paragraph<br>3. simulation: bills moving through the US system | **Activities:**<br>1. rank comparison of the UK and US systems based on set categories [see visual 3] |

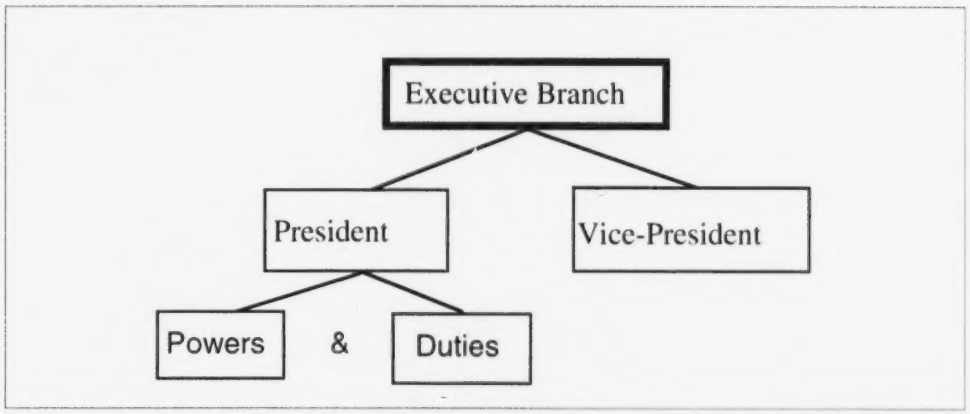
**Table 4**

Students were assigned some reading on the branches of the U.S. government prior to day 5. Before the start of this lesson, the outlines of three visuals, one for each government branch, were put on the board (See key visual 1). This kind of visual was already familiar to students from previous exposure. The teachers then elicited information contained in these visuals by asking individual students questions such as: *What is the legislative branch commonly called in the U.S.?; What is one institution of the U.S. Congress?; What is the other institution of the U.S. Congress?; How many seats are there in the House of Representatives/Senate?.* Questions like these were asked for each of the three branches of government. Through the student responses the teachers were able to begin filling in the three visuals representing each branch on the board. Students were required to answer in complete sentences.

Besides eliciting their knowledge of the content, another aim of this introduction was to review question/answer patterns related to language of description and classification. Therefore, during this part of the lesson, students were required to focus their attention on this language with books closed and pens down. Clarification and comprehension questions about the content listed in the visuals on the board were answered next. Following this, all of the information was erased from the visuals except the names of each government branch and the structure of each visual. We then passed out incomplete visuals for each branch to every student. Next, we asked students to come to the board one at a time. These students then asked classmates questions from memory about a visual and used the responses to fill in the visual on the board. Thus, the visuals and the language explicitly related to them helped to make abstract information more context-imbedded.

Once the students completed as much of the visuals as their current knowledge allowed (generally up to the point of duties and powers), the class was broken into three groups. Each group was provided with a summary of either article 1, 2 or 3 of the constitution of the United States. Their task was to identify the sections, powers and duties of their government branch and add this information to the visual pertaining to that branch. Here again, they were practicing language related to the knowledge structures of classification and description.

**The Executive Branch**




**Key Visual 1**

After this task was completed, groups of three were formed with members having information pertaining to separate government branches. In this information-gap activity, they were able to once again practice the now familiar structures related to description and classification and work actively with the academic content while filling in the two incomplete charts. Questions for clarification and expansion were also used by the students in this exercise. There were some unresolved questions and these were directed to both teachers during the information-gap exercise. The content instructor then concluded the class by using some of the questions as a basis for a short lecture reviewing the days content. Here, students' schema was directly referred to as information they were taught in high school about these government branches in a Japanese context was presented in a simple comparison by the content instructor (a Japanese national).

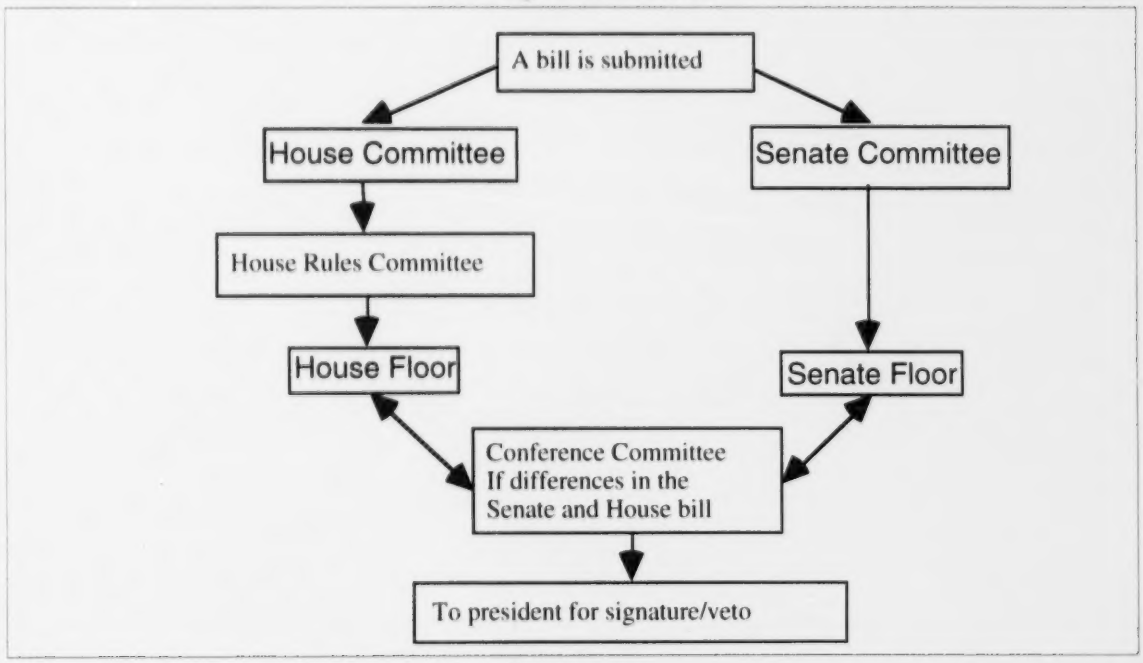
In the next class[1], learning from the previous lesson was recycled giving students a further opportunity to work with new information. The various functions of the government were linked to the information-gap activity completed in the previous class. Each group was given a sheet containing the appropriate

branches using the language of classification. Students sat in the same groups in which they completed the three key visuals minus everything but the skeletal structure. By this point in the course, the structure of knowledge related to description and classification was familiar to the students. As a result, the content of this particular task, introduced in the previous session, could be reviewed easily.

The teachers created cards which contained pieces of information from the visuals completed in the last lesson. Examples of these information cards are: commander-in-chief; federal courts; must live in the state s/he represents. In this game, a card was read by one instructor and the first group to place this information in a visual linguistically, received that card. For the card commander-in-chief, for example, acceptable spoken answers would be sentences such as, *"One of the powers of the president is that of commander-in-chief "* or, *"The president has the power of commander-in-chief"*. For this function, the words *power, president* and *commander-in-chief* had to be used in the sentence. All of this information was needed for correct positioning in the visual to occur. The team with the most cards (and most fully completed visual) won the game and prize. As a follow up for homework, students had to write short paragraphs using descriptive language (there is/are) about the three branches.

Later when the students had a basic familiarity with the American Presidential System, we shifted in the framework and presented a lesson which was organized around the centre column of the KF (see Table 4). Language and content which fit into this column help learners understand how something works. For the first part of the lesson, process language was reviewed. Students were already familiar with this kind of language from exercises in their English classes. After what is meant by a legislative bill was defined by the content instructor, he began the process of building background knowledge by using an example familiar to the class; that of a bill moving through the Japanese Diet. During this he modeled process (sequence) language for them by using chronological connectors such as, first, next, then, after and finally.

**The Congressional Process**




**Key Visual 2**

Next, the class described the sequence of a bill moving through the legislative and executive branches in the United States. This was done by following the language teacher and repeating after him in chorus as he revealed the sequence stage-by-stage on the overhead projector using key visual 2.

Using this visual, the class then engaged in another competitive activity. Two skeletons of key visual 2 were put on the board. The class was divided into two groups seated at the back of the room, far from the board. One member from each group was asked to go to her/his team captain (one of the course instructors) and in the proper sequence say a correct sentence about the process. After doing this correctly, the student was given the card with that piece of information from the visual and quickly had to connect it to the visual on the board and tag the next team member in line. Then the activity was repeated. The first team to successfully complete their visual won the game and prize.

At the end of this class the students were given a short test. They had to draw a complete visual illustrating the sequence of a bill moving through the U.S. system. This visual was marked and returned to them the next class for any corrections. They were also asked to write a paragraph describing this sequence for homework after the following lesson.

The conclusion of this lesson was a mini-lecture which reviewed the concepts of presidential veto and congressional override, taught on day 7. The point of this lecture was to clarify these concepts and also allow the students to expand the information on key visual 2.

Drawing this section of the unit to a close, in the next class the students did a simulation of a bill moving through the legislative and executive branches of the United States government. This activity will not be explained here but it actively engaged the students with a complex and rather abstract process alien to their personal experiences through a role-playing technique. Prior to the start of this activity, "principles" language involving probability and prediction was introduced. This language, not entirely alien to the students, was practiced for the duration of the simulation.

In the final lesson of this unit the students were asked to evaluate the two systems. Here we engaged the students in the knowledge structures of evaluation and choice. This column of the KF deals with the knowledge of how to apply that identified and explained previously through the structures related to the first two columns. In this case students had been describing, explaining and comparing/contrasting various aspects of the British parliamentary system and the United States' presidential system. They also learned how legislation moves through each system respectively. This final class of the unit served as a review lesson because students were expected to justify their evaluations of the two systems based on their knowledge of this unit and the previous two units. To do this, each student needed to know both the theoretical structures of these systems of government and some examples of their practical application. Students first worked individually evaluating the two systems and then a class discussion about the systems was held in which they expressed their opinions and agreed and disagreed with one another.

One copy of key visual 3 was given to each student. The students were told to rank each system on the three-point scale. Their worksheet also had space for them to write justifications for their ranking in each category and they were encouraged to do so while noting specific examples. Each of the ranking categories was familiar to the students as these were the central terms around which unit two on democracy

was structured. After completing their rankings, students were told to examine them, choose the system they most preferred and state reasons for their choice.

**System Evaluation**

| | Britain: **Parliamentary** | United States: **Presidential** |
|---|---|---|
| RESPONSIVENESS:<br><br>How well does each system answer the concerns of all citizens?<br>(majority rule, tyranny of the majority. . . ) | | |
| LIMITEDNESS:<br><br>How well are government power and responsibility defined?<br>(rule of law, minority rights. . . ) | | |
| EFFECTIVENESS:<br><br>How well is the government able to pass legislation/achieve consensus?<br>(stability, energy. . . ) | | |

1 = poor 2 = satisfactory 3 = good

**Key Visual 3**

As a language aid during this class discussion students were provided with gambits for expressing personal opinion, [In my opinion. . . ; I believe. . .; I think. . . ; I feel. . . ], agreement [ I agree with (that/you); I think so too], and disagreement [I disagree because. . . ]. This language was also used in the previous lesson in which students compared and contrasted the branches of government in the U.S. and U.K. They then compared their notes orally while using these gambits. During this final lesson of the unit, the instructors did not intervene in the discussion very much. The students had plenty of background information, they had developed opinions and they had enough language to carry on an open discussion with little prompting from their teachers.

## Conclusion

To maintain a fully integrated content and language classroom which builds skills and competence, instructor teams need a mechanism to direct instruction in a systematic way. The need for this kind of methodical approach is increasingly being recognized (Snow, Met & Genesee, 1989; Swain, 1996). When we began teaching as a team we searched for some way to organize our content and language lessons more cohesively. Since the MIC curriculum revolves around the use of active and cooperative learning techniques, activity-centered lessons were a prominent feature of our classes. Partially as a result of this, together we began to explore the concept of activity in more depth. Increasingly we saw how the use of cooperative and active learning activities could provide the vehicles for language and content learning. From this standpoint, the knowledge framework, based in the notion of activity (action situation), was a logical choice as a cohesive device to bring our content and language teaching together. And while it is not the only possible choice (see, for example, Chamot & O'Malley, 1994; Snow, Met & Genesee 1989; Short, 1991 & 1994), it is one referred to most in the literature including many descriptions of practical classroom applications. The Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach

(CALLA) (Chamot & O'Malley, 1994) for example, does not appear to have as wide an application as the KF. CALLA fits best at the junior and senior high school levels (Dicker, 1994).

With a common framework and an understanding of its central idea of activity, we set upon the task of preparing different activities with an eye to blending language learning, content learning and thinking skill development. When our activities were plugged into the knowledge framework, various methods of integrating language and content activities became more apparent to us. Thus, these activities were lesson planning tasks which we as the teaching team worked at together, each looking for channels to foster the development of language, content and thinking skills through the same or similar activities. In this way, the knowledge framework provided us with the basis of our pedagogical dialogue across disciplines.

Out of this collaboration our integrated classroom took shape. Dealing with a common framework as the basis for materials development (activities and the language applicable to each), allowed the presentation of content and language items to be as seamless as possible and thus, created a fully integrated classroom. In this classroom language and content specialists worked together as a teaching team to provide students with opportunities for language, content and critical thinking development. This kind of deliberate planning is important as "it is unlikely that desired levels of second or foreign language proficiency will emerge simply from the teaching of content through a second or foreign language. The specification of language-learning objectives must be undertaken with deliberate, systematic planning and coordination of the language and content curricula" (Snow, Met & Genesee, 1989, p. 204).

For students who need to learn academic content through a second language, the fully integrated classroom offers new and exciting possibilities. The knowledge framework gives instructor teams from different disciplines a way to discuss and plan common lessons in a comprehensive way. This leads to highly structured lessons where content and language learning are naturally combined. The final result of this process is the development of a fully integrated classroom in which it is often not clear who is the language instructor and who is the content instructor. Thus, the reality of content-based language teaching is revealed. Content and language are inseparable and so is their teaching and learning. The knowledge framework provides ILC teachers with a method to reflect this reality in their classrooms.

## Notes

[1] Student oral reports were being presented during some of these classes so instruction time was shortened.

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